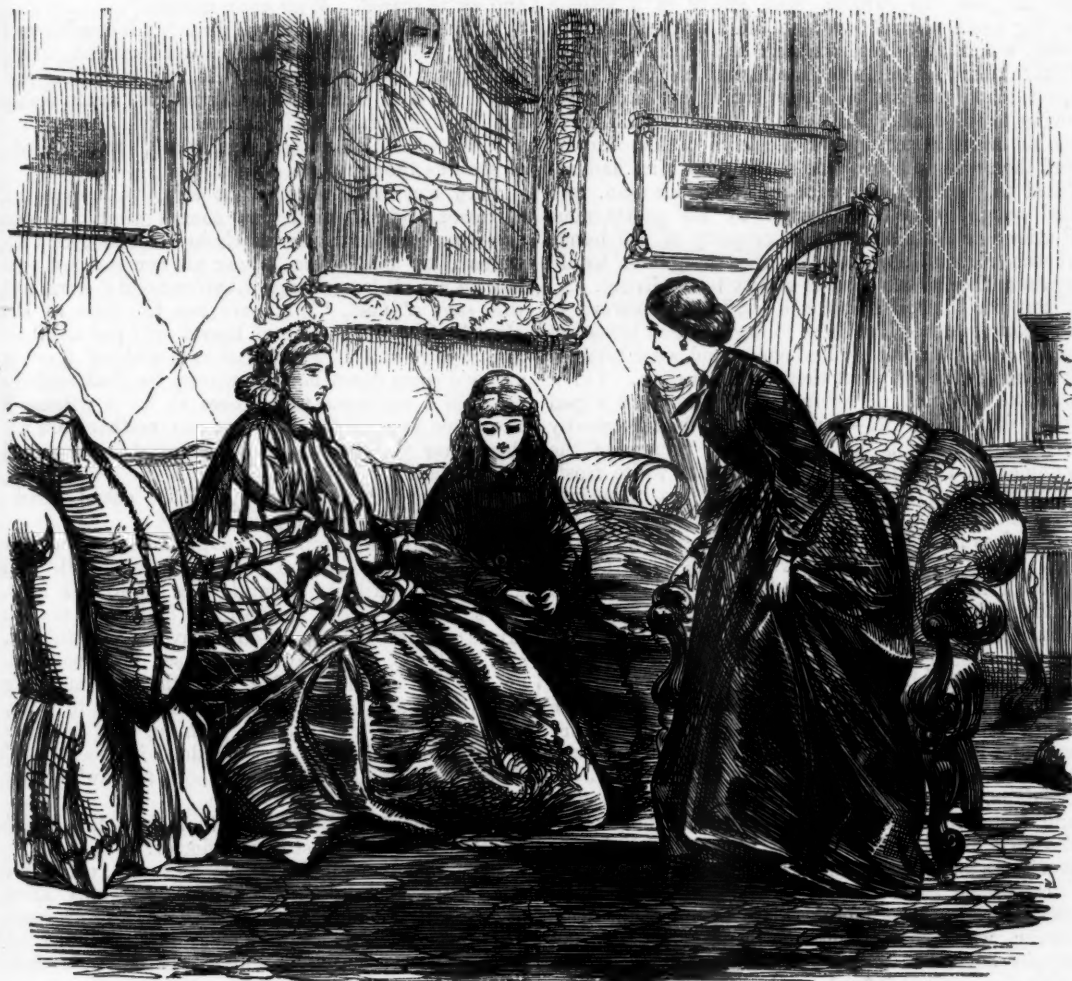


# THE LEISURE HOUR.

A FAMILY JOURNAL OF INSTRUCTION AND RECREATION.

"BEHOLD IN THESE WHAT LEISURE HOURS DEMAND,—AMUSEMENT AND TRUE KNOWLEDGE HAND IN HAND."—*Courper.*



MRS. CRICHTON'S FIRST VISIT TO BARRY AND MARK.

## DAVID LLOYD'S LAST WILL.

### CHAPTER XLII.—THE CURSE OF GOLD.

In the meanwhile, Mark was spending his time quietly at Clunbury, still superintending the fitting up of the old house into a suitable home for Barry. He had been arrested, and examined before the magistrates, who had admitted him to bail on the security of two substantial householders of the neighbourhood, personally strangers to Mark, but who had been provided as sureties by Mr. Appleby, the lawyer who

had drawn up Mr. Lloyd's first will, and with whom both Mark and Barry had held some confidential communications unknown to each other. The assizes were to be held about the end of July, at the county town, Thornbury, about seventeen miles from Clunbury; and little more than a fortnight now remained before the time for Mark's trial. In the immediate neighbourhood, wherever David Lloyd had been known, the rumour of this strange will case, with numberless variations, created great interest, and the controversies upon its merits ran high. In the esti-

mation of some the crime seemed heinous, as violating the security and sacredness of a man's will, the sole power left him for good or evil in this world after his death. But those who knew best the circumstances and the character of the miser, applauded Mark for the very act for which he was about to be tried and condemned by the laws of his country. Mark himself, in his solitary summer evenings, spent under the old sycamore-tree, with myriads of bees humming amid the thick leaves overhead, and with the heath before him beginning to show a tinge of its rich August purple, went over the whole matter deliberately and impartially, both for and against himself; and perhaps came to a fairer conclusion than either his accusers or vindicators. It was true he had, on the surface, been guilty of a solemn wrong against social law; he had betrayed a grave trust, which the deceased man had confided to his faithfulness; he had set himself and his own judgment above the sacred duties which are ordinarily owing to the dead. But, on the other hand, he had by his criminal act upheld the laws of his country, and thwarted an attempt to evade them; he had refused to become the tool of an avaricious man, who had sought to cheat Heaven by his posthumous charity; and he had left the property in the hands of the rightful heirs. His own judgment would again authorise the deed as a duty to the living.

But for himself Mark had not looked forward to any consequences like these following upon his secret action; still, since they had come, and were coming, it was necessary to meet them with courage. Yet it was sad to think of having two whole years wiped clean out of his life—a useful life it had been—by the blankness of a jail: to lose the fulness of the summer, and the fading of the leaf, the white frosts of winter, and the bursting of the buds in spring; while other men, more guilty than himself, rejoiced in careless freedom; to be out off from the sympathy and praise of good men, which had been as the wine of life to him; to pass Sabbath after Sabbath with no sight of loving faces seeking his gaze, and no sound of familiar voices claiming to tell their stories into his friendly ear; to be numbered among felons, and wear their badge of infamy, while his soul was clean; to be set aside into blank inaction, while the world went on, and left him far behind. It was very sad, and it grew to have a vacant horror of its own, as he brooded over it in the long twilights of the July evenings, until the bats came out of their crannies, and darted in angular flight about the old house, and the owls hissed and hooted at him jeeringly in his loneliness and depression.

It seemed as if the day for his trial would never come, and he grew more restless as the time drew nearer, wandering about the heath, and the fir-coppice beyond it, whenever he was not occupied in arranging with Mr. Appleby the affairs of the estate, which it would be well to set in order before his imprisonment began. Rambling about thus one evening he strayed down the lane leading to the crossing over the railway, where the fatal accident had overtaken David Lloyd. The sun had set, but the twilight was still clear, and almost bright, and only the distant landscape was growing dim with the blue shades of the approaching night. Mark could see plainly before him the white gate, and the figure of a man leaning against it, with his face turned towards the upper line of rails. It was no country labourer, though a poor man evidently from his

garb; but before Mark was near enough to recognise him, he suddenly started upright with a gesture of vehement terror, flinging his arms up high above his head, while he cried aloud in a voice which rang shrilly through the quiet evening air. There was a strange paroxysm of madness about it, an abrupt, incomprehensible outbreak of horror, for there was nothing to be seen along the line, and Mark darted forward as the man turned round with a face ashy pale, and flaming eyes, displaying the panic-stricken features of Clough.

"Clough!" exclaimed Mark, as he reeled past him, and fell down upon the green hedge-bank, "Clough!"

"Ay, it's me," he gasped, "aw'm noan well to-neet, and aw'm scared. Wait yo' a minute."

Mark waited while Clough drew his labouring and fluttering breath, and wiped his wet forehead, where stood great drops of sweat. He was trembling and shivering as if with cold, and muttered again feebly that he was ailing and frightened.

"But what has brought you here?" asked Mark, as soon as Clough could speak.

"Aw con find no rest," he said, with eyes full of terror and disquiet, "aw cannot work i' th' ould mill; it seems as th' air 'ud choke me loike; and it's worse i' th' ould house, wheer aw con see my poor lass lie a' neet long dying, wi' yo're hond i' hern, and who says a' neet, 'Whatever has te' done at Mr. Mark?' Oh, Mr. Mark! if they'd only put me i' th' jail, i' yo're stid! Aw could na rest, and aw' thought, at aw'd coom down here at wunst, for that raskill's sent me a summons to be here to be a witness i' two-three days, and aw cannot rest neither here nor theer, nor anywhere. So aw tramped it agen, and here aw am."

"But why not come by rail?" asked Mark; "your expenses will be paid."

"Aw dare na," replied Clough, falteringly; "aw dare na' ride o'er the very spot wheer th' ould maister were killed. It nigh kills me to look at it, but something drove me down to look at it to-neet. Mr. Mark, aw cannot get it out o' my yed. A' th' day, and neet too, when aw dunnot see my poor lass, aw see th' engine coming, and th' ould maister's white hair, and him a bending down o'er th' rails, seeing nothing, nor hearing nothing, only the piece of gold, and being killed stone dead in a moment o' time. Aw shall see nought else till aw'm dead myself."

"But you must be very ill to feel in this way," said Mark; "you must have a doctor."

"No, no, na doctor!" persisted Clough, earnestly; "a doctor con do me no good. Aw only know o' one thing 'at could do me any good. Iv aw could get away out o' th' country afore this trial, and not be a witness agen yo', aw might be better, a sight better. Aw cannot read my dixonary now, nor aught else. Aw've no comfort nor peace i' my life. Iv yo'd help me out o' yo're way, Mr. Mark, aw'd be a' reet, may be. They could na' prove nought agen yo', if aw were away or dead. It's no use to beg o' yo' to go, but help me to get clear away, for God's sake."

Clough looked up imploringly, his chest still heaving with the effort to breathe freely, and to speak plainly, and his sallow face lit up with a feverish fire. Mark shook his head.

"It would be of no use, Clough," he answered; "you forget that I have owned to having done

it. You are more troubled than you need be; more troubled than I am myself. Don't be afraid of doing me any harm, but give your evidence honestly and boldly; and I do not see how any reasonable person can blame you. No one will, unless it is Nanny, who is quite as unwilling to be a witness as you are. Come, I cannot leave you here, for you do look ill and weary. I will find a lodging for you in the village with old Trevor, who has left his corner of the Heath House."

Clough staggered to his feet, and stood for a minute or two looking round him. The blue shadows of night had drawn closer, but the white gate, and the straight road with its black lines of rails, were plainly visible still. His hollow eyes were fastened upon one spot of the dangerous road, and he lifted off his old hat, and stood bareheaded in the cool gloom of the evening.

"Aw curse," he said, solemnly, "th' day aw come down here; and th' day aw entered th' ould house; and aw curse wi' a bitter curse 'at th' ould maister made me sign his last will. Aw curse th' greed o' gold, and th' hoarding o' gold, and th' love o' gold. And aw pray God Almighty, if he con hear sich as me pray, 'at aw may never touch a gold piece agen a' th' days o' my life."

Having given utterance to this wild and bitter voice of remorse, Clough turned to accompany Mark along the darkening lane, but with an unsteady and feeble gait, as of one who had lost all the strength and vigour of health. It seemed as if the many months of indigence and stinted pittance which he had suffered, had all at once ended in the utter overthrow of the poor weaver's physical and mental powers. His chest fell in in hollow curves, his limbs bent under him, and his heavy eyes were dim with tears of drivelling weakness. Mark talked to him in cheerful words of encouragement as they made slow progress towards the village; but Clough shook his head despondently, and replied only in short, rare sentences. They reached at last the new abode of the old mole-catcher, and Mark commended him to his special care, ordering that every comfort should be provided for him until the time for the trial at Thornbury should come on.

But Clough had no attack of illness such as Mark had apprehended. He came up every day to the Heath House, in spite of Nanny's cold looks and sharp words, and spent most of the time in a never-ending tangle of bewildered thought under the sycamore-tree. The sole gleam of light which fell upon his benighted soul came from the near neighbourhood of Mark, whose pleasant words and unchanging kindness to him, bound him in ties of the most grateful yet despairing affection. His thoughts wandered in their dreary maze, round and round the question as to what punishment might be inflicted upon him, if he betrayed that he had not saved David Lloyd's life when it was in his power to do so. He had almost let it out that night when Mark found him at the railway gate; but when he was put into the witness-box, with shrewd lawyers plying him with hundreds of cunning questions, how would it be possible for him to keep his secret? Sometimes he thought he would confess all to Mark, and so get rid of the greatest weight of the burden, but he could not bear the idea of seeing the only face he cared for changed in favour towards him. He clung to Mark's kindness as a drowning man clings to a straw, and every hour shortened the period

during which he should feel the comfort and strength of it.

So the two wrong-doers sat in turn under the sycamore-tree where Barry had essayed to enter heaven by trance, Clough during the daytime, and Mark long after nightfall, and their thoughts were more in number than the uncounted leaves overhead. But as the time for the trial drew near, Mark grew calm, while Clough fell lower and lower into an abyss of dread and despondency.

#### CHAPTER XLII.—RICHARD CRICHTON DISSATISFIED.

THE anticipations of both Barry and Mab were fully realised upon their return to Lloyd Terrace. Barry had not been there for more than a day or two since their inheritance of David Lloyd's wealth; and now she was compelled to listen to congratulations, while her heart was heavy with anxiety and care concerning Mark, whose rash sacrifice of his own safety had secured it to them. With these congratulations, moreover, were mingled felicitations upon Mab's wonderful good fortune in making so excellent a match; and Barry found it no easy conflict to keep down the old Adam in her nature, and smile blandly upon the well-wishers of her sister. Mr. Christopher Lloyd, on his part, received all such congratulations coldly, and contrived to keep up a sore little irritation in poor Barry's mind by carefully silencing those who wished joy to Mab too loudly.

The formal recognition of the engagement by the Crichton family was delayed for some days by the indisposition of Mrs. Crichton, the second wife of Richard's father, and his stepmother. Etiquette demanded that she should make the first advance towards forming an acquaintance with the family of Devonshires' late traveller, and Barry took her stand upon etiquette; though Mab was averse to so great a mother-in-law finding her in so bare and despoiled a home. For Barry would not hear of refurnishing the house at Lloyd Terrace, as she and her father had resolved to live at Clunbury, where they could enjoy the freshness and repose of the country. The dispute ran higher than any dispute that had ever arisen between them; but Barry was mildly firm, and there was no appeal against her decision. If Mrs. Crichton could not condescend to visit them in any dwelling where they might choose to reside, Mab might go alone to see her, if she pleased; but as for herself, she certainly should not go.

A little hard was Barry, perhaps; a little disposed to carry matters with a high hand, higher than it might have been if her own love had run smooth, or if she had been the expectant daughter-in-law. But she was unhappy; and unhappiness is no softener of the temper. She was willing to be generous to Richard and Mab within certain limits, but her strength could not overpass those limits. It is to be feared she cried a good deal in those days, in secret, of course, when other eyes were sleeping; and she became subject to nervous head-aches, such as had never troubled her in those busy days when she was out at all hours, and in all weathers, ministering to the pressing wants of the poor. She tried to take up some of the work again, but she found most of the threads lost. The sewing-schools were things of the past, and their scholars were scattered; some to service or to emigration into other counties, but the most part to work in the mills, which were gradually resuming a portion of their interrupted activity.

Though there was a good deal of pinching still among the mill-hands, the absolute want of employment and lack of wages were gone. The hard times were passing away, but the good times were not yet come.

It was past the middle of July before Mrs. Crichton could pay her visit of ceremony, of which Richard gave ample warning beforehand. Mab's poor little heart was immediately overcharged with many cares; with the aspect of their single sitting-room at the back, looking upon a small square of turf, surrounded by walls covered with dingy ivy; with Barry's appearance as the mistress of the house; with her father's behaviour, and with her own costume and conduct. Richard had intimated that he would not accompany his stepmother, but would come in some little time after her arrival, when the first awkwardness of the interview was over; and Mab felt herself abandoned and aggrieved, though resolved to make the most of her own triumphant loveliness.

The dreaded lady arrived at last, after Mab had bewailed a hundred times the poverty of their bare and comfortless home, which told so plainly its tale of former troubles. Mrs. Crichton was a tall, fine-looking woman of about fifty years of age, with the ease and self-satisfaction of manner which often attends wealth; a shrewd woman, too, who looked penetratingly at the two girls, and read something of their characters at once. Mab had drawn herself into the background in pretty confusion, but Barry, as the elder, advanced to receive Mrs. Crichton, who took her hand, and held it between both her own with a warm and friendly pressure.

"Are you Mab?" she asked, looking deep down into Barry's clear eyes, with a smile of welcome and satisfaction in her own.

"No, Mab is my sister," answered Barry, withdrawing her hand, and standing aside for Mrs. Crichton to see Mab, who stood with drooping head and blushing face behind her, a very pretty thing to look at.

"Ah! what a lovely creature!" exclaimed Mrs. Crichton, involuntarily; and then she kissed Mab, and seated her on the sofa beside her; and Mab made her long eyelashes quiver and flutter upon her soft cheeks, while her future mother-in-law looked keenly over her fair face, with its low, white brow almost hidden by thick, wavy tresses of golden hair, and then glanced at the bright, open features of Barry.

"Which of you two is the Miss Lloyd who was so busy among the poor at the time of the famine?" she asked.

"It was I," replied Barry, frankly, "but I was paid for it. I was a paid teacher at one of the sewing-schools, and the most of the work fell to my share naturally. I think people did not generally know that."

"I think people did," said Mrs. Crichton, in a cordial tone, "and thought none the worse of the young lady for it. Richard used to talk a great deal to me about you in those days, and I quite believed it was you he was in love with, only it is common enough for a young man to be in love with one sister and to talk of the other."

Barry flinched painfully at these words. It was but a foretaste of what she must expect to hear often.

"Barry need not have done any work, but for uncle," remarked Mab, plaintively; "he was ever so

rich, but he wouldn't do anything to help us, and it was he who took all our furniture away and sold it. The house is very uncomfortable, but Barry says we must do as well as we can now, till we leave Manchester."

Mrs. Crichton looked inquiringly from Mab to Barry.

"We are not going to stay here long," said Barry; "my uncle left me his own house at Clunbury, and it is now being put into repair, and fitted up for us. My father prefers the country, and so do I; and the boys will go to school as they used to do when papa was the American traveller for Devonshires. You know he used to be their American traveller?"

"I know all about you," answered Mrs. Crichton, graciously.

"Papa was not exactly a traveller, Barry," said Mab, with a little peevishness; "you are always trying to lower us. I am sure it was quite wonderful to hear how ancient our family is, at Bar-mouth, where everybody knew the Lloyds and the Barrys. Papa used to be very fond of travelling, and he did it as much for pleasure as anything."

"He found pleasure in it," said Barry, "just as I did in the sewing-school; but we were both paid for our work, and we both wanted the pay. I don't think we can be lowered by any of the circumstances in which God's providence places us."

"You are right, my dear," said Mrs. Crichton, "and Mab is a silly child who must learn to be wiser. Why! Mr. Crichton's mother was a mill-girl, and half the Manchester people have no grand-parents to boast of. We are all working people, child. Where is your father, Miss Lloyd?"

"He is not very well to-day," answered Barry, "and he is keeping in his own room for the morning."

In fact, Mr. Christopher Lloyd, resolved to have nothing to do with the Crichtons as long as he could help it, was at that moment sitting at his bedroom window, sulkily contemplating Mrs. Crichton's carriage and pair of greys.

"I want you both to come and spend a few days with us at Didsbury," said Mrs. Crichton.

"It would be impossible for me," replied Barry, hurriedly; "I never leave my father, and we are going down to Thornbury the day after to-morrow to be present at a trial. But Mab can come."

"You mean Mr. Fletcher's trial?" said Mrs. Crichton; and Barry nodded silently in reply.

"Yes," said Mab, "it is only a trial against him, you know, for destroying uncle's last will; but it cannot make any difference to us. Some people have thought we should lose the property, but we are quite safe. And Mark is no relation of ours at all, though Barry does call him cousin; so if he is sent to jail, it will be no disgrace to us."

"Will he be sent to jail?" asked Mrs. Crichton.

"There is no hope of anything else," answered Barry, sadly; "the lighter penalty is sure to be inflicted; but even that is imprisonment for any term, not exceeding two years, at the pleasure of the judge."

"Who is the judge?" inquired Mrs. Crichton.

"We expect it will be Mr. Justice Morley," she said, "and they say he is very severe."

"He is a cousin of mine," replied Mrs. Crichton, pausing for a full minute in apparently deep thought. Richard Crichton came in at this moment, a little

shy and embarrassed, with none of the happy pride of a lover altogether content with his choice. Step-mothers are apt to be sharper in speech, and a trifle less tender in manner than own mothers; and Mrs. Crichton strewed some thorns in Richard's path, by bringing out Mab's empty though pretty little vanities, and Barry's good strong feeling and common sense. It was settled that she should come the next day to fetch Mab for her visit; and then Richard led her to the carriage, and took his seat, at her request, beside her.

"Richard!" exclaimed his stepmother, "I wonder wherever your eyes and your common sense have been! Barry is worth ten of Mab. Mab is a little prettier now, may be, but wait five or six years, and she will be faded and *passée*, while Barry will be a magnificent woman at forty. Yes, and older; for she will make one of those lovely old women one so rarely sees. She is sound at the core, is Barry; but poor Mab has only the bloom of a peach."

"I shall make her a good husband," said Richard.

"Yes, but Barry will make a good wife," she continued; "however, I don't suppose she would have had you, if you had wanted her; so it is best as it is."

There was a sharp sting to Richard in this sentence, for he knew that Barry would have had him.

"She will marry Mark Fletcher when he comes out of prison," added Mrs. Crichton, positively.

"Mark Fletcher! impossible!" cried Richard, "he has taken some sort of a vow never to marry."

"Don't talk nonsense to me, Richard," said his stepmother, "and don't tell me about vows, unless he is a popish priest. Is he not going to prison for their sakes? She is going down to the trial on Wednesday; and mark my words, he and Barry will be married as soon as his imprisonment is over. I hope it will not be a long one."

It was a distasteful subject to Richard, but he could not get it out of his head. Mab came the next day to be introduced to the whole family and criticised by them. She looked her loveliest, and behaved with her most perfect grace; yet Richard was not altogether happy. He could not keep himself from listening anxiously whenever she opened her lips; and it was only when she sat at the harp singing, with all about her silent and entranced, that he could give himself up to any feeling of undisturbed satisfaction.

## BETTING AND BETTERS.

Among the worst of the popular manifestations of the present time, looking to its operation on the popular character and the habits of the English people, is the increase of the gambling spirit which takes the form of Betting. This great vice has grown enormously within the last few years, and seems now to pervade almost every grade of life. Time was, and it was not so very long ago, when the votaries of the turf had their single centre of operations at the West end of London, where bets were made, where the odds were determined, and where accounts were settled when settling-day came round. They had

also their single organ in the press, devoted exclusively to sporting subjects, which were but exceptionally treated by the respectable journals.

Within a comparatively short period, all that state of things has disappeared, and a revolution has taken place, startling to contemplate in the present, and portentously suggestive as to the future. The betting mania now prevails among all ranks and conditions of men. In lieu of the one centre of operations, there are now many in all parts of London; and in lieu of the single sporting journal there are at least a dozen so styled, while every newspaper published is in some respect a sporting organ, for all have columns devoted to turf news, and all afford facilities, as advertising mediums, to sharpers, cheats, and turf commission agents. In our day turf-betting has expanded and developed into an art, and like the other "arts," has its professors and proficient, and its peculiar schools, of the general tone of which it was lately said in a leading paper—"Scoundrelism enfolds the turf on every side—breeders, trainers, owners, jockeys, backers, and book-makers all breathe the atmosphere of crime."\* The higher class rogues, who have the advantages of wealth and opportunity, and can operate behind the scenes, bring this about by privately "cooking" the arrangements of the coming race, by bribing the jockeys, by crippling or drugging the horses, by "crabbing," lying, and misrepresentation, by working the mysterious machinery of the "book-horse," or the horse who is "not meant," or by bringing about a "scratch"—measures, these, so far as we

\* An offer was recently made by the Racing Committee of Manchester to purchase, at a large price, a piece of ground for a race-course. The owner of the land, J. Purcell Fitz-Gerald, Esq., J.P., felt it his duty to refuse the offer, and addressed a letter to a member of the racing committee, to explain his reasons for declining, at considerable sacrifice, an offer of this kind. From Mr. Fitz-Gerald's letter, which appeared in a Manchester paper, we extract a few sentences:—

"Gambling among all classes of our people underlies and pervades the present racing system. Racing, it is well known, would not go on without gambling.

"After the revelations of the 'Derby day,' at Epsom, in May last, the 'Times' newspaper wrote as follows on May 25th: 'The days are long past in which the patrons of the turf professed a patriotic desire to improve the breed of horses. It is not for love, but for money, that race-horses are now, for the most part, bred and reared. Betting, in short, has become the life and soul of racing.'

"Professional gamblers and 'book-makers,' whom our law sets down as criminals, as truly as the pickpocket or burglar, are seen conspicuous in every race-stand.

"How, then, does the case stand? To perpetuate a system which necessarily involves wholesale gambling, wholesale drunkenness, and other sins, you ask me to renew your lease, or to sell the race-course to you. You would do this as leading to a highly profitable money investment.

"The race-stands are, I hear, let by you for some thousands a year. Two or three acres of land are covered with large booths for 'refreshments.' Cart-loads of beer-barrels, together with intoxicating spirits, discharge their contents into them. And here, throughout the race-days, the greater mass of our working people gather, not to see a race which lasts not two minutes of time, but to gamble according to their power, and to drink, not for refreshment, but for drinking's sake, till hundreds of them issue from these booths too drunk to walk home alone, and carry to their wretched families the sight of their degradation, besides having lost (as must often be the case) a month or two of wages by gambling.

"When, during the race-days of last June, I walked down from Pendleton to this place, and met the crowds that had left the course, I can truly say that every fourth man seemed to be more or less 'in liquor.' Two hours later, those who had stayed longest drinking, reeled along the road; many sat down or fell on the road-side; blasphemies and all filthy conversation were roared out.

"We are building churches and chapels in every district. We are trying to pre-occupy the minds of our hundred thousand children with some heavenly truth in our Sunday-schools. It is a melancholy thought that so many of our richer classes go on encouraging what I have here proved to be equally immoral and illegal.

"But then we are told that our royal family attend the races at Ascot, and that cabinet ministers, with the highest noblemen, attend those of Epsom. Thus is the highest sanction given to the system. If our most gracious and revered Queen knew that at the Manchester spring races all the school children of Manchester and its near townships are, by common consent of the clergy and other ministers, taken into the country in order to escape from those races, her motherly heart would sympathise in the effort. These children are not merely kept away because they may be jostled in the crowd, or run over; they are kept away in order that they may be spared the sight and sound of so much drunkenness and pollution. And whether or not royal or noble persons attend Epsom and Ascot decides no question of morals or religion, of right or wrong."

can understand them, by which the public expectation is to be frustrated. The horses who could win if they were allowed to do so are prevented from running in the race, and thus the vast sums wagered upon them are made to flow into the pockets of the "knowing ones." There are many who owe their wealth to frauds of this kind, who occupy pretentious positions in society, and who are, of course, the envy of their less prosperous brethren.

Rogues of another type, turf-engendered, are they who try to worm out information by any practicable means, fair or foul, touching the conspiracies in hand, and then make their market of it. These eavesdroppers are as often deceived as not, but they can profit by selling a delusion as well as by selling a fact, seeing that they always deal for ready cash, and are not affected by the result. The sporting newspaper is the convenient accomplice of these unscrupulous knaves, and opens its advertising columns as a field for their operations. There you may peruse their tempting offers at all times. They tender you the "tip," as it is called, at various prices, from a guinea or more down to a shilling: purchase their "tip," and lay your wagers according to its suggestions, and then, if you do not win—why, blame them; that's all. They have broad backs, to stand any amount of blame; to be sure they bear it anonymously, as you never know who they are. The name of these miscreants is legion, and, like the vermin that batten on corruption, they are ever on the increase. Never does a sporting chronicle send forth a single impression that is not polluted by the solicitations of this clamorous crew. That they are liars and thieves to a man, everybody knows who has had to do with them. The marvel is, that they have not yet eaten one another's heads off. That climax, however, is not far distant, judging by the present symptoms. The "tip," which a few seasons back cost a guinea, is come down to half-a-crown, to a shilling, to six postage stamps, and to less than that, for we see that one considerate benefactor offers to teach any one how to win a fortune in 1869 for whatever a client may choose to give.

Nor are the newspapers the only mediums of instruction in the gambling arts. Some of the professors of betting are of a literary turn, and, desirous of communicating knowledge, they have composed treatises on the subject, which treatises, under various titles, which we shall be excused for not transcribing, have come into the literary market. By these instructions of youth the aspirant who hungers for his neighbour's money is inducted into the complexities of the betting craft, and is taught how to calculate to a nicety what are the actual chances of any or all of a hundred or more contingent events said to be "on the cards," that is, which may possibly come to pass. He may also, by sedulous study, learn to systematise his turf speculations, may know when it is prudent to "back a jockey" or a long shot, when to take advantage of the "market odds," how to save himself from peril by timely "hedging," how to hold his own in regard to "milking," "scratching," "roping," and other unobvious and recondite processes—how to come by the "winning modus"—in a word, he may make himself master of all possible methods of cheating his neighbour out of his money in a legitimate and honourable way, that is, in accordance with the ideas of honour which the fraternity of the turf find it convenient and profitable to entertain.

The betting profession would seem to be pretty well systematised by this time, though as the professors do not yet publish periodical reports, we cannot speak with entire certainty on this point. It is plain, however, that the institution flourishes bravely: it has its corresponding agents who will execute commissions of all kinds, however complicated, at a simple percentage; it has betting-houses of more or less pretension in all parts of the kingdom, where every particle of information on all racing events that are forthcoming is carefully and regularly posted up—and where bets can be made and entered, and finally settled when the results are known. At the betting-houses the merest tyro is taken in hand, and if he has anything to stake is speedily initiated into the secrets of the art. Some disinterested clerk will teach him how to make a book, and for a trifle will sell him the secret of making it so cunningly that, be the event of the race what it may, he must come off a winner (?) What proportion of the stakes deposited at a betting-office go to the bureau, we cannot say, nor what proportion of them is on the average embezzled by the proprietors of such dens; but we have had occasion to notice of late years the abnormal prosperity of betting-house keepers, and the celerity with which men whose chief accomplishments were the capacity of grooming a horse and stealing his oats—who could not even write their own names legibly—have risen from the stable-yard or the mews to be men of substance and consideration.

There are also tramping turf-swindlers—fellows whose vocation has no particular locality, who go about the streets of the City in gangs, haunting sometimes the purlieus of Fleet Street and the Strand, at other times lying in ambush for pigeons under the trees in St. James's or Hyde Park. There is no more striking index of the virulence of the betting plague than is furnished by the existence of such a class as these vagabonds. It is almost inconceivable that they should be able to derive a subsistence from roguery so gross and palpable as theirs; yet the fact is that they mostly thrive, and but for the intervention of the police, who mark down their coveys and regularly put them to flight, would probably thrive well. They are the commission-agents of the lowest and humblest class of betters—clerks, shopmen, cabmen, waiters, footmen, grooms, costermongers, etc., etc. That they do not uniformly make off with the deposits they receive on transactions is owing not to any love of honest dealing on their parts, but to a principle of expediency which, keeping future chances in view, prompts a more prudent course. It is somewhat anomalous that while these fellows, who are regarded by the professional betters much in the same light as the street traders are regarded by the shopkeepers, are hunted down by the law and driven from post to pillar, the established betting-houses manage to defeat the legislature and carry on a brisk trade in spite of all restrictions. Owners of such establishments can generally escape conviction if prosecuted, and even when convicted they are known to laugh in the magistrate's face as they fling down the cash exacted as a penalty for their offence. Debts incurred by betting or any other form of gambling are not, as every one knows, recoverable by legal process, so that the keeper of a betting-house is not legally responsible for the deposits confided to him. There is no doubt that this phase of outlawry operates, as it was intended to do, to a considerable

extent to the discouragement and abatement of betting; we were much surprised, therefore, by a recent award from the bench, by which it was decided that although the man who lays a wager, and loses, cannot be sued for the amount, yet another man who guarantees the better's responsibility may be so sued. This is only sanctioning in one form the offence which is punished in another.

It is, of course, impossible to ascertain the amount of money lost and won in England in a single racing season—the season, it may be remarked, beginning in February and continuing until far on in November. During all the months of spring, summer, and autumn, the fever of gambling rages—some crisis or other always impending in one or other of the English counties. The amount that changes hands in a year is probably equal to a million sterling, and has been estimated at more than twice as much. Where does it all come from? is a question which naturally arises. In the mass of cases it is to be feared the money is as ill-gotten as it is misapplied. In thousands of instances it is stolen from the master's till; in thousands more it is embezzled by those who have been entrusted with it; it is got by swindling and fraud; it is the product of fraudulent bills, which are dishonoured in case of ill-luck; it is the fruit of forged acceptances; it is raised by loans at ruinous interest; it is borrowed from friends and relatives under lying pretences; and in fifty other ways it is got over the devil's back to be squandered in devil's pastime.

This moral plague, bred in the corrupt surroundings of the race-ground, is the gift of the wealthy landed gentry and aristocracy of England to the classes beneath them. Gambling in this particular manner is the example which the rich man sets to the poor man, by way of teaching him what to do with his money. The results of the example, owing to the avidity with which it is followed by a population like ours, whose ambition and whose weakness it has always been to ape the follies and vices of their superiors, are among the most fatally disastrous characteristics of our time. What do they present to us? On the one hand we have the "turf," dragged down by the force of systematised villany to the very lowest stage of degradation—transformed from what once used to be defended as a "manly sport," into a scene which few men of character would venture to defend.

We have made no suggestion as to means which might be employed to mitigate the ravages of the plague of betting. It were vain to point to any such means so long as the law does but play fast and loose with the offence, and the framers of the laws which bear upon it themselves habitually transgress them.\*

\* It cannot, however, be too widely known that "betting-houses" and "book-makers" are by Acts of Parliament illegal (16 and 17 Vict.). By the second of these Acts, "For the Suppression of Gaming-houses," any house suspected of carrying on systematic betting, under a warrant signed by two justices of the peace, may be entered, and, if necessary, broken open by the police (section xi of Act). The commissioners of police may authorise the superintendent of police to enter and search such suspected houses (section vi). By section vii it is enacted that, "Any person exhibiting, or publishing, or causing to be exhibited, any placard, handbill, card, writing, sign, or advertisement, whereby it shall be made to appear that any house, room, or place, is opened, kept, or used for the purpose of making bets or wagers, or for the purpose of exhibiting lists for the bettings, or any person who, on behalf of the owner or occupier, shall invite other persons to resort thereto for the purpose of making bets or wagers, shall, upon summary conviction thereof, before two justices of the peace, forfeit and pay a sum not exceeding £30, and may be further adjudged to pay costs attending such conviction; and in default of non-payment of such penalty and costs, or in the first instance, may be committed to the common jail," etc. Section ii of the Act makes all such betting-houses to be reckoned as

## THE RIGHT HON. ROBERT LOWE, M.P.

THE eminent position held by Mr. Lowe among public men, induces us to give some account of his political career and public services. The son of the Rev. Robert Lowe, Rector of Bingham, Nottinghamshire, he was born at that market-town, in the pleasant vale of Belvoir, in the year 1811. Mr. Bright was born also in the same year. Mr. Gladstone, their chief in the premiership, is some two years older than his two colleagues. All the three—a distinguished triumvirate—alike sprung from the great middle class of England, are thus in the full maturity and vigour of their great powers. The names of Mr. Gladstone and Mr. Bright have been long prominently before the country; that of Mr. Lowe was scarcely known to fame until within the last four years. Educated at Winchester, and at University College, Oxford, in 1833 he was first in classics and second in mathematics. In 1835 he became a fellow of Magdalen College, and in 1836 he took his degree as M.A. At Oxford, Mr. Lowe was well known as a private tutor or "coach." It was during the period of his residence that the "Tracts for the Times" were published. Whatever may have been then the amount of his agreement with the teaching of some of the earlier tracts, he yet held himself aloof from any identification with the school of writers by whom they were issued. In the controversy which arose out of the famous Tract No. 90, Mr. Lowe was constrained to take part. He published two pamphlets on the subject, directing his argument against the doctrines promulgated in that tract, as indeed became his position as a layman, not on theological, but on moral grounds. In 1836 Mr. Lowe married Georgina, the second daughter of Mr. George Orred, of Aigburth House, near Liverpool; and having devoted himself to the study of law, he was in January, 1842, called to the bar by the Honourable Society of Lincoln's Inn. Before the close of that year he proceeded to New South Wales, with the view of following his profession in that colony; and this he did for eight years with marked success.

The Australian colonies, during the brief period of their existence, have presented three distinct phases. First, convict settlements, with the characteristics of such, they in time became distinguished for their agricultural and pastoral interests; and again, for those social and economical features attendant on the discovery and development of their rich mineral resources. It was before the discovery of gold, and at the time of the height of prosperity arising from the culture of the soil by industrious emigrants, and from the wealth created by the vast extension of flocks and herds that Mr. Lowe became a resident and a practitioner in New South Wales. The felon population had by that time been swallowed up in the general multitude, and the social and moral condition of the people had undergone a surprising degree of improvement. The powers of government of the colony were then vested in an executive and legislative council. Twelve members of the Legislative Council were nominated by the Crown, and twenty-four elected by the people. In 1843, the year following his arrival, Mr. Lowe be-

"gambling-houses," under the statute of 8 and 9 Vic., cap. 109. This could not be evaded as it is now if the police were instructed to show activity against pretended "cigar-shops" and "chop-houses," well known to be gambling-houses.

came one of the nominated members, and this fact may be taken as evidence of his recognised ability and ripened knowledge. This was his first introduction into the arena of political life. In that comparatively narrow field of action, where misunderstandings and personal acerbities are more apt to prevail than in the larger parliamentary sphere of the mother country, Mr. Lowe maintained his independence while he strove to influence for good the legislation of his adopted country. Speaking, as he had afterwards occasion to do in this country on the question of a reform in the government of the Australian colonies, he related his experience as a nominated councillor. "I have had the honour," he says, "of filling that office myself, and of resigning it, because I found it impossible, whatever I did, to fill it to the satisfaction of my own conscience, and at the same time to the satisfaction of others. For instance, if I voted with the Government I was in danger of being reproached, as I have been on one or two occasions, by representative members as a mere tool of the Government, and not, according to the theory of the constitution, acting for the colony at large; and if I took an opposite course, and voted with the opposition, as I did upon most questions, I was reproached by the officials as a traitor to the Government. In fact, I was in this position—if I voted with the Government I was taunted with being a slave, and if I voted against them I was taunted with being a traitor."

After his resignation as a nominee of the Crown, Mr. Lowe, in 1848, was returned by the town of Sydney, and occupied a seat in the Council as a representative member. This position he held until his departure from New South Wales, on the 27th of January, 1850.

When he reached England, a bill for the better government of the Australian Colonies—having passed the House of Commons—was before the House of Lords. On the 1st of June, at the rooms of the Society for the Reform of Colonial Government, with the late Sir William Molesworth in the chair, and before an audience composed of influential members of both Houses, Mr. Lowe stated the views of enlightened men of all classes in Australia, on the subject of colonial government. He spoke as an inhabitant of the Australian Colonies, and as deeply interested in their welfare. The wishes of the colonists he represented as adverse to the centralising power of the Colonial Office, and in favour of two legislative chambers. In regard to the last mentioned point, he gave his own opinion emphatically in the following words:—"For practical business, for useful legislation, for a security against rashness, a second chamber is a most valuable invention, and one which you have no right to withhold from the colonies when you give them free institutions."

In the debates which afterwards took place on the bill, both in the Lords and Commons, Mr. Lowe's statements were frequently quoted, and exercised no little influence in determining the ultimate form of the measure. The Government, indeed, confessed that their judgment in regard to the provisions of the bill had been overruled by the opinions of the colonists, of which Mr. Lowe had furnished the latest and the most explicit statement. The clause which regulated the elective franchise in New South Wales was introduced at his suggestion—a clause which was again re-enacted by Parliament in 1855, and only repealed under a power reserved to the

local Legislature some two or three years afterwards, for the purpose of introducing universal suffrage.

Mr. Lowe did not return to Australia. His powerful pen, it is said, about this time, was often recognised in the columns of the "Times." In the autumn of 1852, when Lord Derby's Government was in power, he offered himself to the electors of Kidderminster, and by the constituency of that town he was returned to the House of Commons. The successful candidate was invited by his supporters to a banquet, which was held on the evening of the 14th of September. A banner which hung in the hall bore the device, "Lowe and Free Trade;" and we shall find as we proceed that Mr. Lowe is disposed to carry not less into educational than into commercial matters the principles of a free-trade policy. The chairman at the banquet, in his introductory remarks, ventured to predict—a prediction since fully realised—that the new member for Kidderminster was destined to take no common share in the management of the affairs of the country. In his speech Mr. Lowe paid a warm tribute to the recently deceased statesman, Sir Robert Peel; but perhaps its most interesting passage is that in which he especially refers to himself: "Ever since I have been capable of ambition," he said, "it has been my hope and wish—it has been my struggle and endeavour through good and evil fortune—through many adverse and many chequered circumstances, to attain to the proud position in which the constituency of Kidderminster has placed me—that of a member of the Commons House of Parliament—and which I would not exchange for any other position in her Majesty's dominions."\*

After the fall of the Conservative administration and on the formation of a coalition ministry under the Earl of Aberdeen, in December, 1852, Mr. Lowe was appointed one of the joint secretaries to the then Board of Control. In this office he continued until the resignation of Lord Aberdeen's Government, in February, 1855. It was during his tenure of office as secretary, that the India writerships were thrown open to public competition. With the assistance of Lord Macaulay and other eminent men, Mr. Lowe applied himself to frame a scheme on which the examination of candidates for these appointments should be based. Disregarding the restricted range of university studies, he included in that scheme everything that he could think of that a well-educated man should know. The plan, with some slight changes, has worked smoothly and well, and is that by which the offices in question are now distributed.

In the first administration of Lord Palmerston, the member for Kidderminster held the double office of Vice-President of the Board of Trade and Paymaster-General. And when the same noble lord was a second time called to power, Mr. Lowe, then member for Calne, was appointed to the important post of Vice-President of the Committee of the Privy Council for Education.

In referring to Mr. Lowe's administrative and legislative labours in this department, it may be necessary to say that the system of grants by the

\* A writer present in the House when Mr. Lowe delivered his successful maiden speech thus speaks of him: "Regarded from a distance he appeared to be a hale old man, far advanced in years, with the silvery hair of an octogenarian. Regarding him near at hand, one could not but recognise at once in the whitened head and ruddy countenance, peculiarities of constitution, and not the effects of time, the honourable member being then, in point of fact, only just turned forty."

Privy Council in aid of education began in 1839. These grants were from the first made to the religious denominations of the country, and to bodies like the National and British and Foreign School Societies, on reports furnished by inspectors appointed to visit the schools. The religious element thus necessarily underlies the whole system of Privy

The distinctive principle of the Revised Code consists in awarding the grants on the ground of efficiency of the teaching tested by examination. "I have come to the conclusion," says Mr. Lowe, in his speech delivered in the House of Commons on the 13th February, 1862, "that inspection, as opposed to examination, is not, and never can be, a test of the



From a Photograph by Messrs. Watkins.

Council Education. The question of the grants in aid of education was in 1858 referred to a royal commission. That commission, after three years investigation, made a report in March, 1861, and that report had the effect of creating a crisis in the system; for it set forth that only one-quarter of the children attending the assisted schools were properly educated. The inspectors, on the other hand, looking to the character of the teaching, represented that ninety per cent. of the schools were either excellently or fairly taught. The Committee of Council had thus to judge between the two representations. And after the fullest consideration of the subject in all its bearings, they framed the scheme known as the Revised Code, and submitted it to Parliament for its sanction.

efficiency of a system of national education. Inspection is valuable in many ways; but I say that it is not calculated to test in a crucial way the merits of a school." With some modifications, and after much debate and considerable opposition in both Houses of Parliament, the Revised Code, designed by the Committee of Privy Council to raise the character and efficiency of education, passed into law, and now regulates the distribution of the vast sum of money yearly expended among the aid-receiving schools. On Mr. Lowe, as Vice-President of the Committee of Council for Education, mainly devolved the labour and responsibility of framing the new code, and of carrying it through the House of Commons.

An episode in the ministerial and parliamentary

career of Mr. Lowe, which occurred in April, 1864, requires to be adverted to. On the 12th of that month, Lord Robert Cecil, now Marquis of Salisbury, moved a resolution in the House of Commons charging Mr. Lowe with mutilating the reports of inspectors of schools presented to the House, by excluding from them statements adverse to the opinions of the Committee of Council. This resolution was carried, as it afterwards appeared, hastily and without full inquiry. The result, however, was hailed by the majority as a triumph; but though innocent of the charge, it was naturally felt by Mr. Lowe as a very severe censure, and one which so much affected his character and credit as a minister, as to make it incumbent upon him to resign his office. His resignation he intimated to the House on making some explanatory statements. On that occasion, Lord Palmerston said that nothing could give greater pain to himself and his colleagues than losing the services of a man "so eminently qualified to do good service to his country, whether by the extensive range of his knowledge, the logical accuracy of his mind, or the soundness of his judgment and the uprightness of his character." Mr. Disraeli also testified to Mr. Lowe's "distinguished talent—to the clearness of his intellect, and the vigour with which he had conducted public business." A committee was appointed to inquire into the practice of the Committee of Council, with respect to the reports of inspectors of schools; and the report which it presented to the House entirely exculpated Mr. Lowe from the charge brought against him. Upon this, Lord Palmerston moved a resolution, the effect of which was to rescind that of the 12th April, which had censured the Vice-President, and to this Lord Robert Cecil and the House agreed. The fact was, that Mr. Lowe did no more than was incumbent upon him. The minute of the Privy Council of January, 1861, required that reports of inspectors not framed in accordance with its provisions should be returned to their authors for rectification; and this only he had done.

Freed from the responsibilities of office, Mr. Lowe now occupied the position of an independent member of the Liberal party in the House of Commons. In June, 1865, he solicited at the hands of the electors of Calne a renewal of the trust which they had confided to him six years before. From his address we quote the following sentences. "I see no reason for great organic changes in institutions which, though partaking largely of the imperfection incident to all things human, and susceptible, doubtless, of great improvements, as our experience widens and ripens, have combined order and liberty, stability and progress, in a greater degree than the institutions of any other nation." The same sentiments he expressed to his constituents on the 12th of July, the day of his re-election. And in these we find the key to the course which he took in the discussions in the House of Commons on the Reform Bill introduced by the Government of Lord Russell in the following year. The speeches delivered by him in that year were collected and published, with a preface, in 1867. As oratorical efforts they rank very high. Lucid, logical, powerful, and brilliant with apt classical quotations, they delighted the House and took the country by surprise. For political knowledge and wealth of thought they are worthy of a studious perusal. As to their political wisdom and practical value in the solution of the Reform question, it is not for us to express any opinion.

One of Mr. Lowe's statements respecting the character of the lower stratum of constituencies, in a speech delivered on the 13th March, 1866, implying, as it appeared to do, an attack on the working classes, gave much offence to a section of the reformers; but that statement was misconstrued. Looked at in connection with the context of the speech, it is surprising how it could have excited so much odium against him.

Before passing from that year of debates in which Mr. Lowe undoubtedly gained his laurels as a parliamentary orator, we may remark that the important principle as to the representation of minorities described by the term "cumulative voting," was brought by him, in 1867, under the consideration of the House, when sitting in Committee on Mr. Disraeli's Reform Bill. The clause moved by Mr. Lowe, though supported by Mr. Fawcett and Mr. John S. Mill, was strongly opposed by Mr. Bright, and was rejected by the Committee.

We shall now advert briefly to Mr. Lowe's views on "the educational question," and on education itself. The conclusions of a mind like his on subjects so important are well worthy of the fullest consideration. On the 1st of November, 1867, he gave an exposition of his opinions on one department of the great subject of education in an address delivered before the Philosophical Institution of Edinburgh. That address produced, at the time, a considerable impression. Revised by its author, it was afterwards published. As to primary education, Mr. Lowe holds that the education of the poor is the duty of the state. The cardinal defect of the present system of grants in aid, he thinks, is that the Government is placed in an unworthy position of merely following the lead of private persons—obliged to stand looking on with folded arms while masses of the population are growing up in vice and ignorance. Government assistance is lavished on places where it is least wanted, and withheld from the most degraded and destitute localities. He would make a survey of Great Britain, parish by parish, and have a report sent to the Privy Council of what is wanted to be done to place within the reach of every parish a sufficient amount of education. We must go further, he says, than permitting; we must compel—we must insist that by some means or other education shall completely pervade the country. In any national system he is of opinion that a conscience clause must be enforced, and denominational inspection abandoned. Looking at the question both theoretically and practically, Mr. Lowe is a determined opponent of endowments, as applied to middle-class education, that is, to the education of the class who would not think of sending its children to primary schools supported by the state, and yet not in a condition of life to make use of universities or public schools. An educational free-trader, he would here allow the law of supply and demand to operate.

In reply to the "Report of the Commissioners on Middle Class Education," he has very recently published his emphatic opinions. The scope and character of his pamphlet may be judged of from the following extract:—"In the universities very little is learnt from the professors, who have fixed salaries; somewhat more from tutors, who have some interest, pecuniary and personal interest, in the success of their colleges; but the main weight of teaching, especially for the highest honours, rests on private tutors, or 'coaches,' who have no en'owment—no

university status—whose names can hardly be found in the calendar, but who, because they really work for their subsistence, and under the stimulus of need and competition, easily distance their salaried and dignified competitors. They, with everything against them, are the real moving spirits of our universities. They form the mind of youth, they regulate indirectly the tendencies of thought, and without notoriety, without recognition, without any public responsibility, do the work, while the rich endowments are divided among those who do not do it. A richly endowed college, receiving in addition large sums for tuition, ought, one would have thought, to have been able to provide for its students' teaching sufficient to enable them to take the highest honours to which their natural abilities lead them to aspire without other assistance; but endowed teaching is quite unable to bear this strain, and the student must pay twice over, once to the teacher chosen for him, from whom he does not learn; again to the teacher from whom he does learn, chosen by himself. "The public schools," he says, "are in truth adventure schools, and such vitality as they possess is derived not from, but in spite of, their endowments by the free action of the much despised commercial principle represented by the head-master, as opposed to the antiquated traditions represented by authorities who preside over the endowment."

Opinions similar to these on primary and middle-class education Mr. Lowe expressed at a conference held in the Town Hall, Liverpool, on the 22nd and 23rd of January, 1868. But perhaps not less worthy of attention are his deliverances on education itself. The object of education, he states, is to teach as much of that which it is important to know as can be taught in a limited time, and also to discipline the faculties of the pupil as far as possible. As to what knowledge should be taught, the following may be taken as a summary of his views:—"Nature begins with the knowledge of things, then with their names. It is more important to know what a thing is than what it is called. Where there is a question between the true and the false it is more important to know what is true than what is false. It is more important to know the history of England than the mythologies of Greece and Rome—to know those transactions out of which the present state of our political and social relations have arisen than all the lives and loves of all the gods and goddesses that are contained in 'Lempriere's Dictionary.' It is more important to teach practical than speculative knowledge. The present is to be preferred to the past. The knowledge of institutions, communities, kingdoms, countries, with which we are daily brought into contact is more important than that of institutions, kingdoms, countries that have ceased to exist for upwards of 2,000 years."

In regard to the study of languages, Mr. Lowe says: "I think it is a poor and imperfect conception of education that should limit it to the learning of any languages whatever; but surely if we are to make language the whole or a part of education, it should be the language we are most concerned with; and I must be permitted to say I think English has a prior claim over Latin and Greek. I do not disparage Latin and Greek; but I am speaking of what is most important to be taken first; and I think it is melancholy to consider the ignorance of our language in which the best educated of our young men are brought up."

In the same strain are the following further remarks, and which also possess a certain autobiographical interest. "I thought how many irretrievable years of my life" (Mr. Lowe is speaking of his visit to Greece) "I have spent in reading and learning the wars and the intrigues and the revolutions of these little towns, the whole of which may be taken in at a single glance from the acropolis of Athens, and would not make a decently-sized English county. I think that reflection must force itself on the mind of any one who has gone to Greece, and has seen the wonderfully small scale on which these republics are laid out, to which the earlier years of his life were almost exclusively devoted. . . . Every man is expected to know how many archons there were at Athens, though he does not know how many lords of the treasury there are in London; he must know all the forms of their courts, though he knows hardly the name of one of our own. He must be dosed with their laws and institutions—things excessively repulsive to the young mind—things only valuable for comparing with our own institutions, of which he is kept profoundly ignorant." Indeed, the picture which Mr. Lowe goes on to draw of how much a well-educated Oxonian may be ignorant of, is one, it must be confessed, sufficiently alarming. A concluding extract will give us another illustration of Mr. Lowe's views to the same effect, and also furnish an account of his school experiences. "We used to learn a great deal more about the Pagan than the Christian religion. The one was put by to Sunday, and dismissed in a very short time; the other was every day's work, and the manner in which it was followed out was by no means agreeable. The slightest slip in the name or history of the innumerable children of the genealogy of Jupiter or Mars was followed by a form and degree of punishment which I never remember being bestowed upon any one for any slip in divinity."

At the recent general election, Mr. Lowe was elected without opposition the first member for the new constituency of the University of London. In 1860 he became a member of the senate of the University. He is one of the trustees of the British Museum, and was made a privy councillor in 1855; and in 1867 he had the honour of D.C.L. conferred upon him by the University of Edinburgh. On the recent accession of Mr. Gladstone to power, Mr. Lowe was invited to occupy the post of Chancellor of the Exchequer.

### THE MAORIES.

THE Maori race is steadily diminishing in number, and it is to be feared will at no distant time pass away. "Can you stay the surf which beats on Wanganui shore?" say the Maories of the progress of the Pakehas (white men); and of themselves, "We are going—like the Moa."

"As the Pakeha fly has driven out the Maori fly;  
As the Pakeha grass has killed the Maori grass;  
As the Pakeha rat has slain the Maori rat;  
As the Pakeha clover has starved the Maori fern;  
So will the Pakeha destroy the Maori."

I have read, with much interest, the interesting

chapters on New Zealand in Mr. Dilke's "Greater Britain," and agree with most of what he says. I agree with him in his high estimate of the Maori race; but their superiority over other "barbarian" races seems to me an additional cause of their certain and premature extinction. If they were feeble, like the Australian blacks, they might exist in their native land for several hundred years longer; but because they are a high-spirited and noble-minded race, with strong opinions of what is right and wrong, they will not bend to the Pakeha tempest, and will consequently be broken. Besides the fire-water, and the diseases, and other agencies at work in other countries which are in course of being settled, there is too much fear of frequently-recurring wars as a cause of depopulation.

Few people have taken the trouble to learn the real cause of the disputes between the Maories and the colonists. In some cases there have been immediate acts of aggression, as in the recent outbreak, when some peaceful colonists were massacred. But the general cause of wars, and the chronic state of war-feeling in New Zealand, is purely agrarian, and arises out of the disputed lordship and ownership of the soil.

Let it be assumed, as an inevitable result of Anglo-Saxon progress, that the whole of New Zealand must finally be settled by emigrants from the United Kingdom and their descendants. The land is on the great highway over which civilisation is marching, and the Maories are "in the way." Emigrants cannot directly buy land of the Maories, who are unable to give clear and undisputed title. Before the land is properly sold to emigrants, it must first be purchased, surveyed, and marked out by the established government, from which the emigrant can obtain a crown grant or title.

The general course of affairs is as follows:—The land is purchased by the Government of some of the Maori chiefs at less than sixpence per acre. After going to the expense of surveying the land and establishing offices for its sale, the Government sells it at the upset price of ten shillings per acre.

In treaties made with the chiefs for the land, some of the chiefs are said not to agree to the terms; but they are in the minority, and no notice is taken of their objections to the transfer of territory. Whether this be true or not, it is certain that some of the tribes have repudiated the doings of others, and deny the right of the chiefs to sell land that all the Maories own in common. Hence disputes among the tribes.

The New Zealand Government, I may here observe, has not acted wisely in selling large tracts of land to speculators. At the time the upset price of ten shillings per acre was established, a capitalist from Victoria sent over an agent and purchased 300,000 acres. Others followed his example. Such sales of land will in time produce a kind of feudal proprietorship which ought not to exist under the crown or the colonial Government. The land should only be sold in small quantities as required by actual settlers, and the difficulty with the Maories would then have been postponed until they were more able to compete with the emigrants in buying it.

There may perhaps be some difficulty in limiting the number of acres of government land any one person shall buy; but if a tax were laid upon all lands after the crown grant had been issued, speculators would not then buy large tracts and let them lie unoccupied, for, as the Americans would

say, the tax would soon eat the land up. This, of course, must be well known to English colonial governments, but it is much to be feared that they are often a little inclined to favour capitalists, at the expense of the labourer who has only saved enough money for the purchase of a few acres. I mention this chiefly for the purpose of showing that a government that does not act wisely with regard to emigrants, may not always do so with regard to Maories on questions of land.

The general belief amongst people here used to be that wars are frequent with the Maories because they are savages, but this is not now accepted as correct. The real cause of the frequent disturbances is that the Maories will not be quietly improved and civilised off the face of the earth. They have sufficient spirit, intellect, and courage to hold on to the precipice and make a struggle before dropping as a people out of existence.

When judged by our standard of morality, the Maories are on some points deficient, and so are we on other points when judged by them. Let this be noted to their honour: When they declare war they limit the boundary where it shall exist, which is in some territory in dispute, and their enemies are safe elsewhere.

I have heard some Maories boast that in their first war with the English, the only time they were defeated was when attacked while attending divine service one Sabbath morning—on a day that white people had taught them to observe as a day of rest and peace. This was a crime that they would not have committed at the time. Perhaps they would now.

The result of missionary labours in New Zealand, as exhibited by some of the tribes, shows that the Maories are capable of being rapidly brought to an average state of civilisation and intelligence. Even before white men landed on the island there existed amongst them moral maxims and proverbs such as this: "If you throw a spear of wood at me, I may parry it, but I cannot parry the spear of an angry word." Where people have maxims like this, they are worthy of better treatment than the aborigines of newly-settled countries generally receive from Anglo-Saxons.

"There is one great difference," writes Mr. Dilke, "which severs the Maories from the other Polynesians. In New Zealand caste is unknown; every Maori is a gentleman or a slave. Chiefs are elected by the popular voice, not, indeed, by a show of hands, but by a sort of general agreement of the tribe; but the chief is a political, not a social superior. In the windy climate of New Zealand, men can push themselves to the front too surely by their energy and toil, to remain socially in an inferior class. Caste is impossible where the climate necessitates activity and work. The Maories, too, we should remember, are an immigrant race; probably no high-caste men came with them—all started from equal rank.

"Like the Tongans, the Maories pay great reverence to their well-born women; slave women are of no account. The Friendly Islanders exclude both man and woman slave from the Future Life; but the Maori Rangatira not only admits his followers to heaven, but his wife to council. A Maori chief is as obedient to the warlike biddings, and as grateful for the praising glance or smile of his betrothed, as a planter-cavalier of Carolina, or a Cretan volunteer; and even the ladies of New Orleans cannot have gone further than the wives of Hunia and Ihakara

in spurring on the men to war. The Maori Andromaches outdo their European sisters, for they themselves proceed to battle, and animate their Hector by songs and shouts. Even the sceptre of tribal rule—the greenstone *mere*, or royal club—is often entrusted them by their warrior husbands, and used to lead the war-dance or the charge.

"The delicacy of treatment shown by the Maories towards their women may go far to account for the absence of contempt for the native race among the English population. An Englishman's respect for the sex is terribly shocked when he sees a woman staggering under the weight of the wigwam and the children of a 'brave,' who stalks behind her through the streets of Austin, carrying his rifles and his pistols, but not another ounce, unless in the shape of a thong with which to hasten the squaw's steps. What wonder if the men who sit by smoking while their wives totter under basketsful of mould on the boulevard works at Delhi are called lazy scoundrels by the press of the North-West, or if the Shoshonés, who eat the bread of idleness themselves, and hire out their wives to the Pacific Railroad Company, are looked upon as worse than dogs in Nevada, where the thing is done? It is the New Zealand native's treatment of his wife that makes it possible for an honest Englishman to respect or love an honest Maori.

"In general, the newspaper editors and idle talkers of the frontier districts of a colony in savage lands speak with mingled ridicule and contempt of the men with whom they daily struggle; at best, they see in them no virtue but ferocious bravery. The Kansas and Colorado papers call Indians 'fiends,' 'devils,' or dismiss them laughingly in peaceful times as 'bucks,' whose lives are worth, perhaps, a buffalo's, but who are worthy of notice only as potential murderers or thieves. Such, too, is the tone of the Australian press concerning the aboriginal inhabitants of Queensland or Tasmania. Far otherwise do the New Zealand papers speak of the Maori warriors. They may sometimes call them grasping, overreaching traders, or underrate their capability of receiving civilisation of a European kind, but never do they affect to think them less than men, or to advocate the employment towards them of measures which would be repressed as infamous if applied to brutes. We should, I think, see in this peculiarity of conduct, not evidence of the existence in New Zealand of a spirit more catholic and tolerant towards savage neighbours than that which the English race displays in Australia or America, but rather a tribute to the superiority in virtue, intelligence, and nobility of mind possessed by the Maori over the Red Indian or the Australian Black."

I have seen the Maories in their own land; I have met them on the gold-fields of Victoria, and of California; I have sailed with them as shipmates in the South Pacific whale fishery, and have always found them taking the part of *men* in the world's "broad field of battle." They are a noble race physically, and they have the capacity of mental and moral elevation. Christianity has left a permanent\* and beneficent influence on the Maori character. And

if both natives and colonists were always dealt with at once fairly and firmly, as in the days when Sir George Grey was governor, there would be less likelihood of future wars in New Zealand. c. b.

## GOVERNMENT OFFICES.

### III.—THE PRIVY COUNCIL.

THE Privy Council is that body of counsellors to which the sovereign has recourse in all manner of state business. It is the truest modern representative of the ancient Grand Council, which consisted of those who held land from the Crown, and occupied itself, either as a whole or by committees, in carrying on all affairs of state to which the king and the high officers about him could not attend personally. The modern Privy Council is made up of several elements, and is at the same time an executive department, a council of advice, and a legal tribunal. Among its members are those more intimate advisers of the Crown who are known as ministers, and who are directly responsible to Parliament for the government of the country, the Cabinet being, as it were, a committee of the Privy Council. Once a privy councillor, always a privy councillor, and "right honourable." Only in the event of gross misconduct would the extreme measure be taken of striking a man's name off the Privy Council roll. It is obvious, however, that great inconvenience would arise if councillors of opposite political creeds were to meet at the council board. There is a rule, therefore, that no member shall attend without a summons to do so, and though the right to attend is not disputed, the exercise of it is restrained by this salutary rule, which all parties find it as well to respect. Practically, therefore, the Privy Council consists of the friends and supporters of the government of the day—is, in fact, nothing more than the Cabinet "writ large."

As a council, its services are called into requisition during the recess of Parliament, when some matter of importance calls for the exercise of supreme authority, and it is not considered advisable to call Parliament together. In such a case the practice is for the ministers to lay their difficulty before the Council, and to procure an "ordinance," which is published in the shape of a royal proclamation. In this the Sovereign asserts that she has ordered this or that, "by and with the advice of her Privy Council," and all subjects are required to obey the ordinance as though it were an act of Parliament. When Parliament meets next after the issue of such an ordinance, it is the duty of ministers to get the ordinance ratified; and where action has been taken in pursuance of the proclamation, contrary to the rules of established law, it is their interest to get a bill of indemnity to secure themselves from the consequences of their technically illegal acts. Discretionary authority given to the sovereign by any acts of Parliament is always exercised through the medium of the Privy Council, which is constitutionally made to bear the blame of any tortious act committed by the sovereign through its agency, for in England at least the king can do no wrong.

For legal and governmental purposes, the Privy Council is divided into committees, some of which derive their authority from special acts of Parliament, others from commission issued by the sovereign.

\* Speaking of the outbreak of Han-hanism, Mr. Dilke says—"In a day the number of native Christians was reduced from thirty thousand to some hundreds. Not only did Christianity disappear, civilisation itself accompanied religion in her flight." And again—"A magistrate who knows the Maories well, told me that their Christianity is only on the surface." Mr. Dilke is skilful in describing a feast or a war-dance, but on other subjects of some importance in respect to national character, his opinions or his statements are not of much weight.

These committees include the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council; the Committee of Council for Education; the Committee of Science and Art, comprehending the South Kensington organisation, the Geological Survey of Great Britain, and the School of Mines and Museum of Practical Geology; the Committee of Council for Trade and Plantations, under which are six sub-departments, besides the Seaman's Registry Office, and the Civil Service Commission. The Veterinary department is a small committee, dealing with such matters as the cattle plague and other harmful maladies noxious to the beasts of the land. The Committee of Council and Board of Trade, are deemed so important that they are given over to the special care of two cabinet ministers. Over the former department Earl de Grey now presides, while the Board of Trade is ruled by the Right Honourable John Bright.

To the Board of Trade is confided the task of seeing that the provisions of the Merchant Shipping Acts, as regards the *personnel* of the service, are carried into effect, and a special branch of the department is charged with the registration and protection of merchant seamen. It is in the power of the Board of Trade to order official inquiry into the circumstances attending wreck or other misadventure of merchant vessels, and it is armed with powers of punishment by taking away the certificates of masters or mates who may have been found unworthy to retain them. It has, in short, to exercise all the control over the mercantile marine of the kingdom which the Government thinks should be exercised in the general interests of the community. Returns of many kinds are necessarily furnished to the Board by every British merchant ship. A log-book is kept specially for the Board in every ship, and there are other returns, meteorological, commercial, and general, from which the department is enabled to frame its statistics. Detailed accounts of imports and exports, their value, destination, and use, find their way to the Board from all home and colonial ports, and where such information is not ordered by the legislature to be given, as in the case of foreign countries, it is the business of the department to procure it—and it does procure it—for the purpose of comparison. Accounts of all wrecks and casualties at sea, so far as they can be ascertained, are reported to the Board, of which the president conveys any rewards which the Government may give to those who have been instrumental in saving life or property. To the Board all receivers of wreck are bound to account for property received by them, and through the Board claims are made for salvage payable on goods in the custody of its officers, for the goods themselves, and for the cost of maintaining distressed British seamen. One duty of the Board is to utilise the log-books of merchant vessels with a view to compilation of meteorological information which may be serviceable to navigators. Quarantine matters are also under the control of the Board; so are railways and mines to this extent, that the Board of Trade can inspect them at any time, and must certify them as practicable before work is begun.

Linked on to the Board of Trade, though not absolutely under its authority, is the Civil Service Commission, a commission charged with the examination of all persons nominated by ministers to civil appointments in the several departments of state. A young man in old days was supposed to be qualified for his work in a Government office because he had been chosen by the minister for such work, but it

was notorious that as a matter of fact appointments were made solely with reference to politics and private considerations, and not because of any special fitness in the candidate for employment. The Civil Service was well furnished or not, just as it happened, and till the year 1855 there was no guarantee that qualified persons, to say nothing of the best qualified persons, were admitted into the service. In the year 1855 the Civil Service Commission was appointed for the purpose of ascertaining the standard to which each department required that its clerks should come up, and then of ascertaining by examination that candidates for clerkships actually did come up to the standard. In cases where the principle of competition was introduced, it was the business of the commissioners to conduct the examinations so that the best competitor received the prize. This commission, having an establishment at Dean's Yard, Westminster, examines all candidates for civil appointments under the Crown, and is responsible to the Privy Council for its conduct. The report of the commissioners, published yearly, is presented to Parliament by order of her Majesty.

The Department of Science and Art, having its head-quarters at South Kensington, is charged generally with doing all that a government might be supposed to do in promoting arts and sciences. To it is committed the care of much technical education, the superintendence of schools of design, architecture, painting, sculpture, engineering, etc. Under its charge are the Government schools of mining and chemistry, practical geology, and sciences allied to them. To it is given the custody of art collections belonging to the nation, and by it are expended the grants annually made by Parliament for the encouragement of arts and sciences, and for increasing the national art treasures.

The Committee of Council for Education undertakes all the governmental business connected with education, at least as much as the Government is allowed to undertake. Parliament, which may some day recognise the necessity of compulsory education of the people, already acknowledges its obligation to provide to some extent for educational wants. Considerable sums of money are annually placed at the disposal of the Government for educational purposes, and these sums it is the duty of the Privy Council to expend to the best advantage. With grants of money and with professional advice the Committee of Council assist the various schools of a public character throughout the kingdom when satisfied of the need for doing so. National schools, grammar schools, industrial and training schools, which are fit subjects for help, receive it, and are in return obliged to conform, both as to the matter and manner of instruction, with the Government rules. They must also submit to the periodical inspection of the Government inspector, upon whose report the committee act in their future dealings with the school. The assistance thus given out of national funds is bestowed without reference to creed or denomination, if found on inquiry to be needed as a general benefit to the place where the school is situated. The Committee of Council exercise an influence over education generally throughout the country, even in cases where they have not any direct power to interfere; and it is more than likely their present work will be doubled, both in quantity and importance, when the schemes which will come out of the report of the Middle Class Schools Commission shall have come into operation.

By the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council is exercised all the personal jurisdiction of the sovereign as the fountain of justice. All appeals from colonial courts of law, and from the ecclesiastical courts at home, are heard and determined by it, and the recommendations of the committee embodied in a report are in council confirmed by the sovereign, whose decree is handed to the committee as the judgment in the case. According to the theory of our constitution, the colonies are under the personal government of the sovereign, so that it is open to any colonist who feels himself aggrieved by the decisions of colonial courts to appeal to "the king as supreme," and to have his cause adjudicated by him. All such appeals are relegated by the sovereign to the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council. The supreme authority of the king as guardian of lunatics and insane persons is also exercised by the Privy Council, to which come all appeals from Commissioners in Lunacy as regards the persons, and from the Courts of Chancery as regards the property, of insane folk. There is another and very important branch of business transacted before the committee, and that consists of appeals from the ecclesiastical courts. Since the Reformation, the appeals which used to be made from the courts of the bishops or archbishops to the Pope of Rome, have been made to the sovereign, as head of the Church as well as of the State; and the practice used to be, when any appeal came on from the ecclesiastical courts, for the king to issue a commission out of his Chancery, directing certain "delegates," as they were called, to hear the appeal, and to report their finding to him. This Court of Delegates consisted of no fixed number of persons, nor were the same persons always appointed, but it was made up of the most eminent civilians of the day, some ecclesiastics being occasionally joined with them as assessors or assistants. The procedure in this court was cumbersome, dilatory, and expensive, and it was thought that the machinery provided in the judicial committee might be made available for ecclesiastical appeals as well as for other work. To the committee, therefore, in the reign of William IV, was transferred all the business of the Court of Delegates, and the committee is now in point of fact the highest court to which an ecclesiastical cause can be carried. The committee consists of the Lord Chancellor for the time being, any ex-Lord Chancellors, retired judges of the superior courts of law or equity, privy councillors specially appointed for the purpose of strengthening the legal elements of the court, and in ecclesiastical causes certain prelates are usually associated with the other members.

Privy councillors, as such, do not receive any remuneration. Most of them, however, are in receipt of public money either by way of pension for past services, or of salary for present work in the state. Thus the Lord Chancellor, the bishops, the judges, receive their official salaries, for which service at the Privy Council is one of the considerations; retired chancellors, and other ex-judges, get their pensions, and those who are appointed to serve on committees are either specially provided for by act of Parliament, or are appointed to some other post as well which brings them an income. There are certain councillors, however, who are paid salaries in consideration of the ministerial functions they have to discharge as heads of permanent departments, or committees of council. Thus the Lord President of the Council receives a salary of £2,000 a year; the President and

Vice-President of the Board of Trade receive each £2,000 a year; the Lord Privy Seal receives £2,000; the first Civil Service Commissioner receives £1,500; but these amounts are paid for ministerial work and labour, and not by way of salary as privy councillors.

### Former Days.

HEAVY and grey lay the autumn mist

All over the southern hill :

I had almost started to hear a bird,

So thick was the air and still.

'Twas a summer eve when I left it all,

More than twenty years ago,

The sunshine had slept on the hills and vales,

And I had remembered it so !

And often afar on the stormy sea,

Or in dusky Hindoo town,

I'd yearned for its trees with their greeny gold,

And its calm sun sinking down ;

And I'd sometimes dreamed of my mother's tone,

As she prayed by the ingle side—

I had not remembered the rainy days,

Nor the voices that used to chide.

I did not visit my early home,

Though I gazed at its pleasant lane,

For my mother's voice, except in my dreams,

I never shall hear again ;

But I hastened on to the farm which stands

On the hill-side bold and bare,

For he who had shouted the last good-bye,

Was living to welcome there.

And there he stood with his ruddy face,

And his hearty grasping hand,

But Bengalee jungle is not the place

To teach us of crops and land ;

So after speaking in gentle tones

Of the dead since I went away,

We both looked out at the pale grey mist,

And did not know what to say !

He listened to all my traveller talk

Of my home across the sea,

But still I am sure that he thought his wife

Was long in getting the tea !

They were kind enough and I don't think false,

When they wished I'd come to stay ;

But I'd gone away when the sun was bright,

And come back when the mists were grey !

So I said good-bye, and I journeyed on

To the churchyard willow-tree,

For the grave beneath, with its fading flowers,

Was all that remained for me ;

And then I returned to my far-off toil,

On the scorching Hindoo shore,

But my native fields in the summer sun,

I shall see in my dreams no more.

Oh little white town on the English hills,

I am banished afar from thee ;

Under the trees with the greeny gold

There is not a seat for me !

I must be contented to do my work

On the dusky alien strand ;

I'll dearly remember the place at home,

But I'll long for "the Better Land."

*Isabella Fyvie.*

## Varieties.

**RAILWAY ACCIDENTS.**—The number of accidents—I am not speaking of injuries of persons or loss of life—the number of accidents in 1864 were seventy-eight; in 1865, ninety-two; in 1866, sixty-nine; in 1867, ninety-five; in 1868, eighty-seven. These are accidents more or less considerable; and the number, though it varies to some extent, does not show anything like the increase which has been sometimes represented. If we take the number of passengers killed, we find that they were:—In 1864, fourteen; in 1865, twenty-two; in 1866, fifteen; and in 1867, nineteen. Then we come to an extraordinary accident (Abergele), in which thirty-one persons lost their lives; and yet the whole number of passengers killed in 1868 was forty; but deducting those killed in that accident, the whole number was nine. An accident of that kind, grievous and terrible as it is, ought not to be allowed to be taken into consideration in looking at the figures, and the average of each year. The number of persons injured in those five years were—in 1864, 697; in 1865, 1,034; in 1866, 540; in 1867, 689; and in 1868, 519. Therefore the number of persons injured in 1868 was smaller than in any of the previous four years, and that notwithstanding the increase of mileage, the increase of trains, and the enormous increase constantly going on in the number of persons carried. This loss of life does not include servants of the companies nor trespassers. It includes merely passengers who were destroyed by circumstances over which they themselves had no control, it may be said either by accident or by fault of the company. The House will see, if I give them some figures as to the increase of passengers, how much better the account shows. In 1857 the number of passengers carried was 139 millions, I leave out the odd thousands; in 1864, 229 millions; in 1865, 251 millions; in 1866, 274 millions; in 1867, 278 millions. The figures for 1868 have not been furnished me. But the House will see that notwithstanding the enormous increase in the number of passengers, the number of persons who have lost their lives has somewhat fallen off, and the number of persons injured has also fallen off, and therefore there is nothing to excite alarm if we look at the whole case as presented by these returns.—*Mr. Bright in House of Commons.*

**BEER.**—In 1857 the importation of cocculus indicus, an intoxicating and baleful narcotic used to poison beer with, was only 68 cwt., it had increased in ten years to 689 cwt., and last year reached no less than 1,064 cwt., notwithstanding there was a duty of 5s. per cwt. on it.

**ANTARCTIC DISCOVERY AND THE TRANSIT OF VENUS IN 1882.**—At a recent meeting of the Royal Geographical Society, Staff-Commander Davis, who had sailed in the *Terror* in Sir James Ross's Expedition, read a paper on Antarctic voyages in connection with the transit of Venus in 1882. After giving a sketch of the history of Antarctic discovery, Commander Davis explained the phenomenon of the transit of Venus over the sun's disc, which occurred only twice in a century, and the accurate observations of which would enable astronomers to ascertain the precise distance of the earth from the sun, calculations of this distance having varied lately to the extent of between four and five millions of miles. By observing the time of ingress and egress of the planet on the sun's disc (the passage occupying six hours) at two stations, separated from each other by as nearly as practicable the whole diameter of the earth, the distance could be arrived at. The transit would occur on the 6th of December, 1882, and there were two modes by which it could be effectually observed; but by one method absolute longitude was an essential condition, an error of one second in time would vitiate the result; by the other and better method, one of the two stations must be in a high southern latitude. Sabrina Land, one of the points suggested by the Astronomer Royal, would most probably offer a range of mountainous land between the observers and the sun, and was not therefore to be recommended. The author gave the preference to Possession Island, near the coast of South Victoria, on which Ross's Expedition landed in 1841, provided no harbour be found on the mainland of South Victoria or on Coulman Island (latitude 73 deg. 45 min.). As the transit occurs so early in the southern summer as the 6th of December, it would not be possible to reach so high a latitude and erect the observatory in the same season; the party would therefore have to be landed the previous summer and winter there, the ships proceeding to Hobarton to refit, and returning to fetch them when the observations were completed. In conclusion, the author expressed his ardent hope that England, who had already gained the chief honours in polar discovery, would

take the leading part in carrying out this magnificent enterprise. Captain Richards, R.N. (Hydrographer to the Admiralty), said that he had no doubt the Government would be prepared to carry out the suggestions of the Astronomer Royal when the time arrived. It was necessary, however, to bear in mind that circumstances had changed since the *Erebus* and *Terror* were despatched on their famous voyage to the South Magnetic Pole. The Admiralty could then order such expeditions, but they no longer had that power; it was to the public opinion of the country now that the initiative belonged; but he had no doubt that, as the country took so great an interest in the transit of Venus in 1769, it would not fail in desiring an expedition in 1882, and it rested with such bodies as the Royal Geographical and other societies to arouse public interest in the matter. In the discussion which followed, Captain Sherard Osborn expressed the opinion that to insure the success of an Antarctic expedition in 1881 it was necessary to train men beforehand for the arduous navigation of those icy regions, and this could best be done by Arctic exploration. The present time of peace was favourable to the employment of our ships and men in such expeditions, in which science would be benefited and experience gained.

**INLAND REVENUE.**—For the year ending March 31st, 1868, the amounts were: Excise, £20,173,288; stamps, £9,461,010; taxes, £3,450,318; and income-tax, £6,184,166, making a total of £39,268,782 as against £39,159,781 for 1867.

**PRINCE OF WALES A FREEMASON.**—His Royal Highness the Prince of Wales, before leaving Stockholm, was entered an apprentice to Freemasonry, and, having speedily "passed" to the rank of a "fellow craft," was raised to the full degree of a Master Mason, as recognised by the Order all over the world. It is further stated that the newly-made Royal brother entered upon some of the fancy degrees, more practised on the Continent than in England, and was made a Knight of the Masonic Order of Charles XIII. The present Grand Master of the English Order, Lord Zetland, has held his office for a quarter of a century, and the lodges are contributing to a fund for the presentation of a testimonial to him in celebration of his long service. They wished to follow the precedent set in the presentation of plate weighing 1,800 ounces to the late Grand Master, the Duke of Sussex, but Lord Zetland refuses any personal gift. University scholarships for pupils of the Freemasons' School are proposed. It is thought probable that the Prince will become affiliated to the English Order, and will rise to the position held by several of his princely predecessors, it being understood that the present Grand Master desires retirement. The position of Grand Master, by the constitution of the craft, can only be held by a Prince of the blood Royal, a member of a noble house, or by a "man of letters." It may be interesting to state that William III was initiated in 1690; Frederick, Prince of Wales, was initiated in 1737; Henry Frederick, the Duke of Cumberland, was elected Grand Master in 1781; the Prince of Wales (George IV) was initiated in 1787, and was elected Grand Master in 1790; the Duke of York and the Duke of Clarence (late William IV) were initiated with their brother. The Duke of Kent (her Majesty's father) was initiated in 1790, and Prince William of Gloucester and the Duke of Cumberland (late King of Hanover) were initiated in 1795 and 1796. The Duke of Sussex was initiated in 1798, and was elected Grand Master in 1813, on the Prince Regent resigning his office and becoming Grand Patron. The plate presented to the Duke of Sussex on his retiring from the Grand Mastership was returned to the Grand Lodge as a gift by the Duchess of Inverness in 1838. The Queen has given her active patronage to several of the Masonic charities.

**BISHOPS OF ROME.**—For a time the Bishop of Rome was content to be like other bishops; but the associations connected with the seat of his authority suggested the idea of supremacy. Rome had been the mistress of the heathen world; there did not seem to be any insuperable difficulties to her exercising the same influence over the Christian world also. The idea of an interminable line of sacerdotal Caesars ruling despotically over the thoughts and feelings of man in every State in which Christianity was professed inflamed the ambition of the Romish prelate. The pastoral work was laid aside, and he ceased to be a shepherd of souls; the Episcopal Mitre was exchanged for a triple crown, and, with the title of Pope (Papa), the assumed successor of St. Peter became the spiritual head of Italian Christians.—*Williams's Lives of the English Cardinals.*

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